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Health—the poor man's riches, the rich man's bliss.

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THE succession of the seasons, and alternations of temperature, and of dryness and moisture correspond with, and are supporters of vegetable growth, maturity, and decay. These atmospherical vicissitudes promote the flow of our fluids, and, by salutary shocks, give unwonted powers of reaction to the nervous system. They are wisely ordained, since they compel us to exercise—and the gain of activity and power: they cause us to compare impressions, and our judgment is strengthened: they prevent the torpor of body and the sleep of mind, which would almost unavoidably take place if we always breathed the same balmy air, and lived in an atmosphere of unvarying temperature.

Without the frequent changes of winds and coincident changes in the electricity of the air, there would be a fixed state of atmosphere formed, prejudicial to health, and conducive to the origin and spread of diseases. Exhalations from the soil and vegetable remains in the country, and from crowded human beings, and the accumulated rubbish and offal in the city, would constitute a stationary atmosphere, possessing a virulence little short of poison; and which, in cases of epidemic disease, has killed like the destroying angel.

Plague, and the worst pestilences, as yellow fever, and cholera, are products of this vitiated air. Dense and stagnant, it spreads over the land like the curtain of death. We find it over the low ground and the marsh, in the narrow streets and crowded courts and lanes of the city—in receptacles for the poor, the decrepid, and the infirm, who, crowded together, involuntarily contribute to each other's destruction.

The plague is said to be more prevalent in Rosetta than in any other town in Egypt. Now, we learn that Rosetta has ex-

tremely narrow and dirty streets, and even in February the ditches and small canals contiguous to it, and the gardens have offensive stagnant waters within them. In a northern direction near the city there are several morasses and swampy grounds, and as the northerly winds are the most prevalent, the exhalations thence arising must be readily conveyed to Rosetta.

The Bedouins, or Arabs of the desart, are much more exempt from the plague than the Fellahs or Arab inhabitants of the towns or villages. The huts of these latter are small, with few or no windows, and stand crowded together.

The town of Jaffa, in which the plague committed great ravages, is thus described by an eye witness at the time. "The streets are very narrow, uneven, and dirty, and are rather entitled to the appellation of alleys than streets. The houses are constructed of a white friable calcareous stone, and terraced; but on the score of filth, as well as want of space, many of them are little better than pig-styes. It is not unusual, indeed, to see the inmates and the cattle herd together in these dwellings."

Details of such places and scenes will be, perhaps, called shocking by some of our readers, who will, at the same time, devoutly thank Heaven that they are not doomed to live in, or even witness such. Whilst we echo their feelings of gratitude, we cannot, however, forbear from assuring them, that many of their fellow-citizens in this christian land are as badly off in lodging as the Mahometans of Rosetta and Jaffa. We could show them parts of this fair city of Philadelphia, and of its flourishing neighbour New York, which have little advantage, on the score of ventilation, space, and cleanliness, over some of the worst towns of Egypt and Syria. Those spots are inhabited by the poor, and the wretched, and sometimes the depraved —but it should not be forgotten that their miserable and confined houses, have been, many of them, built by the wealthy—men who are without the excuse of necessity for thus erecting prisons, or rather raising traps to catch the thoughtless and the needy, by the bait of cheapness—lazar houses, where, without the common air and light of day, the tenants gradually sink, victims to diseases which are hastened in their progress by intemperance.

We need not boast of exemption from the Egyptian plague, when a pestilence, in the shape of cholera, destroys, every summer, so many children of our city. The imprudence, often criminal imprudence of parents, contributes, by errors in regimen, to this deplorable result. But the main sustaining cause is the close, hot, unrenewed air of the city, more especially pregnant with disease in the courts, alleys, and narrow streets, from which the poor little creatures have often no chance of emerging, busily engaged as their parents are, or ignorant, perchance, as they may be, of the necessity of purer air and ventilation.

Have we, it has been asked, a remedy for these evils? Alas! cupidity, so far from mitigating, seems eager to aggravate and increase them. The same spirit which builds deceptive shelters in the shape of small, ill ventilated houses, heaped together in a court for the poor, now directs the building of more showy stores and dwellings on the main streets, for the enterprising moneyed man. But though showy, and in a degree spacious, they are so jammed up together that they are little better than painted and decorated sepulchres. In vain do their tenants pant for free ventilation, in vain wish for those currents of air which should waft away at once the accumulated exhalations from their bodies, and from vegetable and other matters in their kitchens and cellars.

But some, and that no small palliation, might be afforded by a better organized medical police. Though beyond the power of man to change the wind, or make it blow whence he listeth, we can prevent the sources of the impure and pestiferous emanations which give such fearful virulence to a stationary atmosphere: we can prevent the accumulation of vegetable and animal matters, and every impurity: we can keep the streets and the roads, the yards and cellars clean. We cannot command rain, but, availing of what art has already drawn from nature, we can cause the mimic shower of the water of our reservoirs and pumps to irrigate and cool the surface, and by changing somewhat the temperature of the ground, cause a displacement of the lower stratum of air, and create a kind of aerial current. These are the duties of a board of health, city councils, or corporation—but how laxly they are performed we are too painfully reminded at the corner of even some of our most public streets, by the congregation and eddying odours, which, certainly, are not of the nature of those of Arabia Felix, or such as come from a bed of violets; and yet they impress our olfactories with a force and pertinacity, from which there is no escape but that of direct suffocation, by an entire exclusion from one's nose and mouth of all the external air.

When deprived of the refreshment of a pure breeze, fanning and cooling us, we must be the more careful not to carry about with us a close and impure atmosphere, formed of gaseous exhalations and fluid secretions from the skin. We need not, even though reckless of our neighbour's health, be our own poisoners by self-infection, and cause disorders of the skin, fever, and numerous other ailments. Regular ablution, and friction of the surface of the body, is the duty of an individual, as cleansing and washing the streets, and preventing the accumulation of filth, are of public functionaries and stipendiaries. We wish, by the way, that the duties of these latter useful personages were more clearly made out, or the performance of them more rigidly enforced, that we might not, in walking the streets, be so often reminded of the abominations of Rosetta and Jaffa.

INJURY OF THE SIGHT FROM GLASSES.

Many young persons, it is believed, impair permanently their powers of vision, by resorting unnecessarily to the use of glasses. Defects of sight which were, in the first place, entirely independent of any change in the structure of the visual organs, may, in this manner, not unfrequently, be rendered permanent. The eyes depending entirely upon the artificial aid afforded them by the glasses, are prevented from regaining their lost powers; whereas, were proper means to be pursued without the use of spectacles, the strength of vision might in very many, if not in all cases, be entirely restored. Whenever the sight becomes defective or indistinct at a period of life, long before this can be attributed to the effects of old age, it would be well, instead of resorting at once to the use of glasses, to inquire whether it has not been produced by improper indulgences in eating and drinking, or other species of excess—by late hours—long continued sedentary habits—or by over-exertion of the eyes in an improper light, or in viewing minute objects. If it be found to result from any of these causes, the proper course to be pursued is evident. Temperance—exercise in the open air—bathing, and the relinquishment, for a period, of those occupations by which the eyes are unduly strained, will seldom fail of restoring to them their full powers of vision, and thus render the use of glasses altogether unnecessary. When, however, the latter cannot be dispensed with, great caution is necessary in their proper selection. According to Professor Beer, of Vienna, common low priced spectacles, made as it were by chance, and as it is vulgarly, but truly termed, "manufactured by wholesale" from all sorts of defective materials, even sometimes from the commonest window glass, are not only useless to the wearer, but actually increase the evil they were intended to remedy. In these spectacles, the assortment of the lenses is irregular, one of the glasses having generally a different focus from the other—they are, besides, badly polished, by which their transparency is affected—they are almost always of different thickness—they are often full of specks and imperfections, which being partially ground down, are not readily detected by the eye; and finally, the convexity of the two glasses is seldom equal, the sides not only differing, but different degrees of convexity even existing on the same side of each lens.

The cheapness of these glasses, unfortunately, is a bait to many—but the saving of a few pence ought not, in any instance, to be put in competition with the preservation of one of the most important of our external senses. We have known many persons with defective vision, who, with proper glasses, have for the space of ten, nay, even twenty years, preserved the same degree and extent of sight they first obtained from their use—an ad-

vantage which they could not have enjoyed had they adopted the badly manufactured glasses to which we have alluded.

Spectacles, the lenses of which have different degrees of convexity or concavity, can never represent objects correctly, or of their natural form and colours, but cause them to appear distorted, and tinged with refracted rays of light along their outlines. This produces in the eye a kind of attraction, or drawing forwards; the oblique muscles of the eye being obliged to lengthen themselves in order to see an object distinctly.

The inequality of their focal distances produces, also, strange confusion—a common glass will sometimes have a focal distance of twelve inches at the centre, and only ten at the circumference—besides which, this will often be found associated with another glass, whose central focus is but ten inches, and that of the circumference perhaps fourteen. From this it is easy to imagine what injury must be done to weak eyes, but whose powers are equal, when thus obliged to change the diameter of the pupil, and to admit a greater or less amount of light at every instant. These defective glasses sometimes produce a kind of sparkling, in consequence of the rays of light transmitted by them being irregular or broken up; an inconvenience which cannot, indeed, be always entirely guarded against in the very best lenses, unless they are made of glass tinged either green, yellow, or blue, so as to preserve the equality of one predominant colour. Independently of the false tints, these glasses injure the sight, by their causing the eye of the wearer to see objects differently from the rest of the world; and by their use, even when they do render some little service, we but fall into one evil whilst avoiding another. These common spectacles, also, often produce specks or opacities in the transparent parts of the eye. In consequence of which, the individual imagines, when he looks towards the sky, or upon a white surface, that he perceives a number of small bodies floating before him—these are occasioned by minute portions of the transparent coat of the eye, or of the body immediately within it, having become hardened or opaque from the too great quantity of light which bad spectacles have allowed to pass into the eye. These opacities prevent one portion of the rays of light from falling upon the retina, whilst other rays mark the image of the objects thus apparently spotted with dark points; at the same time that the rapid vacillation of the axis of the eyes produces an appearance of numberless quick moving motes.

COLD APPLICATIONS.

In an essay written by the late Dr. Dickinson, of New York, and recently read before the Hollsten Lyceum, the author points out the leading popu-

lar errors, pursued in the treatment of wounds and other external injuries. These errors had their origin in the incorrect views of the animal economy entertained by some of the older writers on medicine and surgery, and were by them transmitted as a legacy to the public at large; by the less informed of whom they are fondly cherished even at the present day. The praiseworthy efforts which are now making to convey useful knowledge to every class of society, will, it is to be hoped, before long, disabuse the public mind on this as well as numerous other subjects. The essay of Dr. Dickinson, is well adapted to this end: it is marked throughout by that plain practical sense which distinguishes so pre-eminently the writings of Franklin. We have only room for the following judicious remarks of the doctor on *cold applications.*

This, he remarks, is a class of very great importance; one which has been too long in dispute, and too little used in our attempts to alleviate human sufferings.—Cold applications are required in all high feverish heats; in all bruises, sprains and inflammations; in all violent head-aches, sore eyes, wasp stings, &c. Now let us look at the reason for applying cold. It is in all cases *to prevent* [and mitigate] *inflammation.* It is one law of our nature that an unusual quantity of blood rushes to any part inflamed. As a proof, think how quickly the eyelids will swell when stung by a wasp. Now this swelling is nothing more than the flesh being crowded too full with blood. Again, it is another law of our nature, that less blood goes to any part that is cold, and more to any that is warm. As proof, in the winter we come into the house with hands, face, ears, &c. white with cold, but we find the good woman sitting by the fire flushed with heat. Thus you see why cold is applied; and you also learn all the cases in which it is required; viz: in all cases where you wish to prevent inflammation and swelling, or where swelling has taken place and you wish to remove it. And you may learn likewise how effectually this may be done, by remembering that if you remain out in a cold evening long enough; that is, applying cold enough to your ear to freeze it, you have driven every particle of blood from it, and it is as white as a lily. In all common cases much less cold than that will answer our purpose. The effect will always be the same, differing only in degree; cold will always keep the blood from rushing to the part; that is, will always prevent inflammation and swelling; and that is what we were called upon to do.

Having proved then that the application of cold is necessary and useful, the next question will be, how will this application be made? What articles shall be used? There are many articles and many ways of accomplishing this object; but the cheapest and most convenient, the neatest, and altogether the very best mode of applying cold, is by means of cold water, snow or ice. The *prejudices* against *simple cold water*, I know to be very great in the community; but I also know these prejudices are hereditary; believed because grandfathers and grandmothers said so; without one reason from the nature of things, or one single fact from experience. We know such prejudices to exist, from the fact that cold water is never recommended as an

application to an inflamed limb, a sprained ankle, or sore eyes; but we hear from one the question, what, *clear* cold water! May I not put some rum or some vinegar to it? Another will ask, if it would not be well to put in some salt or soap? and if it is to wash inflamed eyes, all will cry out, put some milk with the water. Now do any of the articles recommended by those prejudiced advisers, make the water better? that is, colder. Oh no; this is not expected; we would mix these articles with water, say they, to keep the patient from taking cold! But look at this one moment. Can it be supposed that a little salt, or vinegar, or rum applied to the skin, will keep a person from taking cold? Are there any facts to prove such an assertion? Oh no.—It is an idea that has been handed down from father to son, ever since the first Indian doctor began to practice his mysterious roots; and no reason can be assigned for it. As well might we say that the pebble stones on the bottom of the brook, keep the horses from taking cold, when we drive them in to drink. I have known a swelling upon a child's forehead, as big as a pigeon's egg, occasioned by a fall; and because there happened to be no camphire in the bottle—the sympathising mother had nothing to do, but sit down and cry over her child. Now she should know, that cloths dipped in cold water, or if in winter, when it can be obtained, a snow ball wrapped up in a cloth, and held upon the swelling, will do more good than a gallon of camphire. I have known persons to heat rum to wash the head with, in violent head-aches, when showering it with cold water, or a cap full of snow, will do a great deal of good, as we might expect. I have known a good nurse put on bruised wormwood, steeped in boiling vinegar, to a sprained ankle, to keep the swelling down; but according to the laws of nature, all hot applications in such cases do harm. We must apply cold to do any good. Let pitchers of cold water be poured from a height upon such an ankle, and the inflammation will be very soon subdued."

As is afterward intimated by Dr. Dickinson, these directions to use cold water, are intended to apply to an inflamed state of the part, when it is red, hot, painful, and swelled. After the subsidence of the redness and heat, but pain and tumefaction remaining, and if it be a joint, stiffness of motion, the best applications are warm, and even hot water poured on the part, and active frictions.

PRUDENT PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

In accordance with the intention expressed in our last number, we continue in this our notice of the "Means of Prolonging Life."—There are some subjects, of such paramount importance, and which require so imperatively to be daily acted on, that one can hardly iterate too frequently, the material facts and experience necessary for their complete understanding.—Of these, are the instilling of good moral principles into the minds of the young, and the giving the requisite opportunities for all the organs of their bodies to grow and acquire their full proportionate development and vigour. Time's unceasing march, requires of us promptness of action in these things. The infant passes

into the state of childhood—the child into adolescence—the youth into manhood; while the parents are all the time resolving on doing their best to promote his health and cultivate his mind; but having no fixed plan, being ignorant or prejudiced, they have allowed the plant to shoot up to its full height, before they had precisely determined what direction it should take—whether it required props to prevent it from bending under its fruit, and what excrescence or useless branches were to be lopped off. The mother who has no definite notions of the suitable treatment of her infant at its birth, will have acquired few when it is a twelvemonth old: and if ignorant of the time when it should be weaned, and what kind of food it should have, after her own supply has failed, she will do little to direct it in regimen when it is able to play about, or before the young being passes from her care to the schoolmaster's. Obviously, then, is it desirable, for every person, man or woman, to be instructed in these matters, and not rely on the proverbs of some old crone, whose notions are the inheritance of superstition of the preceding century, as these were of the astrology and palmistry of the hundred years before.

It has been justly remarked, that the physical treatment of a child, during the two first years of existence is, in particular, a very important circumstance in regard to the prolongation of life. An infant at birth, has the frame or outline merely, of its organs. The nerves, the organs of the senses and mind, those of respiration and for locomotion, the teeth, the organs of speech, are to be yet expanded and receive growth and strength, to adapt them to the performance of the functions, and to the future wants of the individual. We need hardly enter into an argument, to prove the importance of attending to all the circumstances by which the continued process of expansion is carried on.

The organs, to the growth and invigoration of which, our attention ought to be mainly directed, during this early period—the first two years of life—are, primarily, the stomach, the lungs, and the skin; and then the heart and circulating vessels, and the senses of sight, and hearing, and the brain.

A means of having good lungs, will be found in pure open air, and afterwards in speaking, singing, running; a sound stomach, by wholesome food, easy of digestion, but neither too strong and stimulating, nor too highly seasoned: a sound skin, by cleanliness, washing, bathing, pure air, a temperature clear of the extremes of great heat, or great cold; and afterwards by exercise; and a strong heart and vessels, by all the above means; in particular, by wholesome nourishment, and afterwards by bodily motion.

Nature points out in our own species, as well as in all the higher orders of animals, the fittest food for the first period of existence. It is the milk of the mother, which, holding a mean rank between animal and vegetable food, conveys abundant nutriment, without much stimulation. Its fluidity and homogeneousness, make it fit to be swallowed without the preliminary process of mastication, which the want of teeth, in infancy, would prevent being performed. The body of a child may be said to live quicker than that of a grown up person, and changes oftener its component parts—it requires nour-

ishment not merely for its support, but for its growth, which is very rapid during the first year. But the young being has, also, a great degree of irritability, so that a stimulus, which a grown up person would hardly feel, may, in it, produce fever, or the cramp and convulsions. We see this truth manifested in the effects of difficult teething, of indigestible matter in the stomach, and a little later by worms.

Moved by all these considerations, it has been declared, on high authority, to be one of the first laws of nature, and a principal ground for a long and healthy life, that *a child should be nourished, during the whole of the first year, by the milk of the mother, or of a sound nurse.* This maxim, most unquestionably true in the main, cannot, however, be generally carried out to a literal extent. That for the period just mentioned, the mother's milk should constitute the chief nutriment of the child, no observant and experienced person can doubt. But, as circumstances may intervene to prevent either a sufficient supply of breast milk, or the child having regular access to it, our next object is, to be able to furnish the little being with food of as nearly analogous properties as possible. This can be done by giving it cow's milk, diluted with water, and the addition of a little sugar. The child is to take this in a manner closely resembling that by which it draws milk from its mother. With this view, the fluid, prepared as above, is to be put into a clean and well scalded bottle, and drawn up by the child, through a tube, the end of which, in the mouth, is made to resemble the nipple, and covered with some soft substance—such as a cow's teat, perforated with holes. If the child be feverish from teething, or temporary and accidental causes, small quantities of pure cold water may be given to it for drink.

Here, in a few words, we have described all the food, necessary for the child, during the first year.—And is this really all? many a mother and nurse will doubtless exclaim. Do you not recommend flour or biscuit pap—cinnamon or clove cordial—sometimes a piece of meat to suck—light puddings, &c. We can only say, that if we desired to multiply the chances of present sickness, and future infirmities for the child, we would recommend these and many other mixtures. But as we know experimentally, that the best health has been maintained by the simple plans we have pointed out, we trust that they who value their own peace of mind, and their child's health, nay, life even, will be content with that which is simple and natural; leaving the rest to be lauded by gossips, dotards, and quacks.

But our restricted limits forbid us from prosecuting the subject any farther at present. Its importance, however, while it insures continued attention, will also justify those details, which we shall hereafter take pains to lay before our readers. Another department, which we propose fully exploring, is on *nursing*, and assistance, and attentions to invalids generally.

DRINKS.

A PERSON is induced to take drink from two kinds of sensations. The first is, an instinctive feeling, and desire for a simple liquid to quench thirst, and dilute solid aliment, and mix with the more stimulating fluids—blood, chyle, &c. in his organs. The second is, mainly, though not entirely, an acquired desire for various liquids, merely as conductors of savoury substances or principles which agreeably excite the taste. The manner in which a drink is taken, and the movements of the tongue and mouth, are indicative, generally, of the kind of desire which is sought to be gratified. When there is real thirst, heat and dryness of the mouth and throat, and a feeling of heat in the stomach, with an active state of the heart, showing its strong stimulation by the blood, we then swallow the liquid freely and eagerly without delay; and we drink from the natural impulse—an instinct to moisten and cool, with the greatest expedition, the dry and heated surfaces, and to supply simple fluid, to dilute the blood, and render the secretions freer and milder. The vessel is put to our lips, and its contents at once emptied, without hesitation, unless where reason sometimes interposes, with uncommon force; as where the fluid is very cold, and we have fears of its effects in this way. But even here, though we take it by mouthfuls—each of these is quickly swallowed—as if to extend it over the largest surface in the shortest time. Very different is the case, when the liquid is a conductor of a savoury substance, whether aromatic, spicy, bitter, alcoholic, or vinous. The pleasure here, being mainly of taste, we retain the liquor in our mouth: move the tongue, so that it shall be spread all over this organ, and applied to the roof of the mouth and palate. The peculiar movements of the tongue, and its approach to the palate, cause an almost involuntary opening of the mouth, and a smacking, as it is called, of the lips, though they, in fact, play a secondary part in the matter.

Even any strong appeal to the taste, produces complex movements of the tongue and mouth, and a slowness of swallowing, not observable when the substance is simple aliment, or simple aqueous drink. Such is the force, however, of habit, and so little congenial are all the liquids and substances of high flavour, with our natural wants, that, when first taken, they are almost always disagreeable to the taste, and cause sundry contortions of the mouth: such are tea and coffee, wine, ardent spirit, tobacco, opium, spices, various bitters, &c. The taste, vitiated by their repeated application, finally craves them, and retains with complacency what it first rejected with disgust.

Taste, as we have already had occasion to observe, was by nature intended to be a sentinel to the stomach and digestive organs, but by false reasoning about remote effects, its warnings after a time are either not attended to, or it craves something for its own gratification; as when, before it lets necessary solid aliment be masticated and swallowed, it must be tickled with condiments, spices, and rich sauces; or, before allowing a liquid to be conveyed to the stomach for dilution and other necessary purposes, it must have the enjoyment of a peculiar flavour, derived from something added to the aqueous

portion or basis of the drink. For we must bear in mind, that were it not for the fifty per cent. water in ardent spirits, and seventy-five to eighty-five in wine, no sophistry could prevent our being poisoned by the alcohol, which is the other fluid aliment, that makes up nearly all the remainder of the liquors in question.

Taste, then, with civilized man, at least with man in the artificial state of society called civilized, is no guide to the salubrity of the drink which he may use. There is but one kind of drink called for by the real wants of his economy, and that is the aqueous. Alone, we find it all sufficient for the primary and main purposes of drink, and were it not for its admixture with the other elements in fermented and distilled liquors, these would become violent poisons—and just in proportion as it predominates, are the deleterious effects of these liquors diminished. This remark is not intended, however, to apply to the more compound drinks, such as beer, &c. in which there are other deleterious matters, independent of the alcoholic element.

But, it may be asked, is it then intended that we should use no other drink but simple water? Is there no compromise to be made between the cravings of taste, and the proper wants of the stomach and other organs, for the growth and support of the body? Cannot the aqueous fluid predominate enough for dilution, and yet allow of some addition which shall gratefully impress the taste, and mildly stimulate the nervous system—the brain and senses more particularly, as the friends of wine and distilled spirits say they will do. To this we reply, that the combinations in nature, and those allowable by art, of water with other palatable and cordial substances, are numerous: we find them in the large class of fruits—acid, and *acido-dulces*, or summer fruits—they may also be made by infusions of various herbs in water. Of these we shall speak in a subsequent number.

OLYMPIC GAMES.

We have just become possessors of an entertaining volume of Gleig's National Library,* extracts from which, we hasten to lay before our readers, in place of a regular notice and analysis of its contents. As some time will probably elapse before the republication of this work in the United States, we have thought it would be wrong, to withhold a knowledge of its character so long from the public, to whom we are ambitious of furnishing both amusement and instruction. Most of our readers, learned and unlearned, have heard or read of the Olympic Games of ancient Greece; and there are few among them who have not experienced a glow of enthusiasm, when the subject first met their notice. The chapter of the work before us begins thus:

"The Olympic course was divided into two parts—the Stadium, and the Hippodromus; the former of which was an elevated open causeway, six hundred feet long, being appropriated to the foot-races and most of the combats;

* Festivals, Games, and Amusements, ancient and modern, by Horatio Smith, Esq. London, 1831.

while the latter was reserved for the chariot and horse races. Pausanias has transmitted to us an accurate description of both, particularly of the Hippodromus; but, instead of a detail, which would be little interesting to the general reader, we prefer copying the following animated picture of the scene exhibited at Olympia, on the morning when the games were opened. 'At the first dawn of the day, we repaired to the Stadium, which was already filled with athletæ, exercising themselves in preparatory skirmishes, and surrounded by a multitude of spectators; while others in still greater numbers were stationing themselves confusedly on a hill, in form of an amphitheatre, above the course. Chariots were flying over the plain; on all sides were heard the sound of trumpets, and the neighing of horses, mingled with the shouts of the multitude. But when we were able to divert our eyes for a moment from this spectacle, and to contrast with the tumultuous agitations of the public joy the repose and silence of nature, how delightful were the impressions we experienced from the serenity of the sky, the delightful coolness of the air from the Alpheus, which here forms a magnificent canal, and the fertile fields, illumed and embellished by the first rays of the sun.'"

After some notices of the gymnastic exercises, which bore the name of the Pentathlon, and which consisted usually of leaping, running, quoiting, darting, and wrestling, the author proceeds to describe the chariot races.

"The gymnastic exercises, being the most ancient, took precedence of the horse and chariot races, though the competitors in the latter were, generally speaking, men of higher rank and consideration than the athletæ, and the spectacle was much more pompous and magnificent. The richest individuals of Greece made a study and a merit of producing the species of horses best adapted for the course; thus accomplishing the original object of the institution, which probably had in view the improvement of the breed: and even sovereigns and republics frequently enrolled themselves among the competitors, entrusting their glory to able horsemen and charioteers. At one festival, seven chariots were entered in the name of the celebrated Alcibiades, three of which gained prizes, and furnished an occasion to Euripides for inscribing a complimentary ode to the conqueror. Over a bar that ran across the entrance of the lists, was placed a brazen dolphin, and upon an altar in the middle of the barrier stood an eagle of the same metal. By means of a machine, put in motion by the president of the games, the eagle suddenly sprang up into the air with its wings extended, so as to be seen by all the spectators; and at the same moment the dolphin sank to the ground, which was the signal for the cars to arrange themselves in order for the race. Besides the statue of Hippodamia, and the table on which were placed the crowns and palm-branches, there were several images and altars in the course, particularly that of the Genius Taraxippus, who, as his name imports, was said to inspire the horses with a secret terror, which was increased by the shrill clangour of the trumpets placed near the boundary, and the deafening shouts and outcries of the multitude.

While the chariots were ranged in line, ready to start, the horses, whose ardour it was difficult to restrain, attracted all eyes by their beauty, as well

as for the victories which some of them had already gained. Pindar speaks of no less than forty chariots engaged at one and the same time. If we recollect that they had to run twelve times the length of the Hippodrome, in going and returning, and to steer round a pillar or goal, erected at each extremity, we may imagine what confusion must have ensued when, upon the signal-trumpet being sounded, they started amid a cloud of dust, crossing and jostling each other, and rushing forward with such rapidity that the eye could scarcely follow them. At one of the boundaries a narrow pass was only left for the chariots, which often baffled the skill of the expertest driver; and there were upwards of twenty turnings to make round the two pillars, so that at almost every moment some accident happened, calculated to excite the pity or insulting laughter of the assembly. In such a number of chariots, at full speed, pushing for precedence in turning round the columns, on which victory often depended, some were sure to be dashed to pieces, covering the course with their fragments, and adding to the dangers of the race. As it was, moreover, exceedingly difficult for the charioteer, in his unsteady two-wheeled car, to retain his standing attitude, many were thrown out, when the masterless horses plunged wildly about the Hippodrome, overturning others who had perhaps previously escaped every danger, and thought themselves sure of winning. To increase the confusion, and thereby afford better opportunities for the display of skill and courage, there is reason to believe that some artifice was employed for the express purpose of frightening the horses when they reached the statue of Taraxippus. So great sometimes was their consternation, that no longer regarding the rein, the whip, or the voice of their master, they broke loose, or overturned the chariot and wounded the driver. Perhaps it would be impossible to give a more accurate description of a chariot race, in all its forms, than is furnished by the following passage from the Electra of Sophocles, as translated by West. After enumerating the ten different competitors for the prize, the author proceeds:

> These, when the judges of the games by lot
> Had fix'd their order and arranged the cars,
> All at the trumpet's signal, all at once,
> Burst from the barrier, all together cheer'd
> Their fiery steeds, and shook the floating reins.
> Soon with the din of rattling cars was fill'd
> The sounding Hippodrome, and clouds of dust,
> Ascending, tainted the fresh breath of morn.
> Now mix'd and press'd together, on they drove,
> Nor spared the smarting lash, impatient each
> To clear his chariot, and outstrip the throng
> Of clashing axles, and short-blowing steeds,
> That panted on each others necks, and threw
> On each contiguous yoke the milky foam.
> But to the pillar as he nearer drew,
> Orestes, reining in the nearmost steed,
> While, in a larger scope, with loosen'd reins,
> And lash'd up to their speed the others flew,
> Turn'd swift around the goal his grazing wheel.
> As yet erect upon the whirling orbs

Roll'd every chariot, till the hard-mouthed steeds
That drew the Thracian car, unmaster'd, broke
With violence away, and turning short,
(When o'er the Hippodrome, with winged speed,
They had completed now the seventh career,)
Dash'd their wild foreheads 'gainst the Libyan car.
From this one luckless chance, a train of ills
Succeeding, rudely on each other fell
Horses and charioteers, and soon was fill'd
With wrecks of shatter'd cars the Phocian plain.
Erect Orestes, and erect his car,
Thro' all the number'd courses now had stood;
But, luckless in the last, as round the goal
The wheeling courser turn'd, the hither rein
Imprudent he relax'd, and on the stone
The shatter'd axle dashing, from the wheel
Fell headlong, hamper'd in the tangling reins.
The frighted mares flew diverse o'er the course.
The throng'd assembly when they saw their chief
Hurl'd from his chariot, with compassion moved,
His youth deplored, deplored him glorious late,
For mighty deeds, now doom'd to mighty woes;
Now dragg'd along the dust, his feet in air;
Till, hasting to his aid, and scarce at length
The frantic mares restraining, from the reins
The charioteers releas'd him, and convey'd,
With wounds and gore disfigur'd, to his friends.

VENTILATION.

It is much to be regretted, that in connexion with the various improvements, which the style of building, and the internal arrangement of our houses, have undergone within the last ten years, more attention has not been paid to the means for insuring a free ventilation throughout every apartment. In the large and sumptuous dwellings of the rich, the wide halls, lofty ceilings, and free communication existing between the principal apartments, prevent, it is true, most of the causes of complaint in this respect: but in the more numerous and humble dwellings, occupied by the labourer, as well as by the industrious mechanic and artizan, and in the buildings, appropriated for workshops, stores, and warehouses, the means of ventilation, have in too many cases been sadly neglected. As a necessary consequence, cleanliness is prevented, and the health and comfort of the inhabitants and inmates prejudiced to a greater or less extent. A free circulation of air, in and about a building, is of too much importance, to allow of its being sacrificed from motives of economy, avarice or mere convenience. Air, when it is confined for any time within a room, or rendered stagnant by any other means, soon becomes, not only unfitted for respiration, but absolutely destructive to life. Under such circumstances, its composition is quickly changed from various causes; while at the same time, it is loaded with dust and deleterious exhalations given out by the human body, even in health, or produced from

the decomposition of animal or vegetable substances. Every one who has entered a room, that has been completely shut up for even a few days, whether inhabited or not, must have been struck with the peculiar smell of the air in it, and experienced the disagreeable sensation, caused by its admission into the lungs. The walls and furniture are soon covered with a damp mold, every thing within the apartment of a perishable nature, falls quickly into decay, and affords materials for the still further vitiation of the atmosphere. Many complain of the unpleasant smell and dampness of their houses, without suspecting for a moment that this is merely the result of defective ventilation.

It is all important, therefore, that the air from without should be allowed to enter freely into every part of a building, if not in a continued current, at least at frequent intervals, so as fully to expel that previously existing in the several apartments. The causes of deficient ventilation are either, the location of the building in narrow crowded courts or alleys—the want of a free communication between the different rooms, in each story—the improper position of the doors and windows, or, the want of an open space of sufficient extent in the rear of the house, in consequence of which the free circulation of the air, is entirely prevented. The healthiness of a dwelling is increased very considerably by allowing to it a capacious yard, which may either be well paved, laid down in grass, or cultivated as a flower garden.

In the largest and best constructed houses, ventilation should be promoted, by leaving the doors and windows open several hours, during the day, in fair weather and when the air is driest, and closing them carefully before nightfall. Even in winter, a proper opportunity should be taken, during the day, to admit freely the external air in every apartment of the house, especially the bed rooms; the ventilation of workshops and manufactories, can be maintained by proper furnaces, which, while they supply a current of heated air, for warming the apartment, cause its atmosphere to be constantly renewed.

TO READERS.

THE *second* volume of the Journal of Health is now completed. In renewing, for another year, their engagement with the public, the Editors of this work cannot refrain from expressing their heartfelt pleasure, at the flattering manner in which their endeavours to instruct and amuse; to make the body's health subservient to the mind's ease, have been received. Respecting their future course, they would wish to proffer a few remarks.

It has hitherto been a leading object with them, to present the greatest variety of facts, which were susceptible of being directly applied to the preservation of health, and preventing the inroads of disease; and while doing this, to remove prejudices, and to show the fallacy of many received opinions, which interfered with private or personal hygiene.

In future, the Editors of this Journal propose to take a wider range, by investigating all the general causes of disease, and the means of prevention and mitigation—epidemic and contagious fevers—the seasons and localities,

under which they are most rife, and all other physical, not less than the moral causes, modifying their progress and intensity, will be fully considered. Information on these topics ought to be widely circulated, so that popular opinion may not, in the time of actual danger, thwart and paralize professional advice and skill. In no other way can the *Medical Police* of a country be rendered efficient, and exercise a salutary guardianship over the public health. *Quarantine regulations* and *sanitary laws*, will come in for a full share of the notice of the Editors in their inquiries.

The bearing of social regulations, as connected with the labour required of *mechanics*, *artisans*, and the *industrious classes generally*, will be considered, and some of the *prominent evils* pointed out.

The necessity of PUBLIC GYMNASIA—places for healthful and innocent recreation, and of PUBLIC BATHS, for cleanliness and refreshment, will be recommended, as heretofore, and still more pointedly insisted on.

The practices adverse to health and morals, in schools and universities, will be also passed in review, and means of prevention indicated.

Temperance, in its largest signification, will continue to be recommended by all the force of argument and variety of illustration, which so important a subject requires.

Abuses in the *erection and management of hospitals*, *infirmaries*, and *alms houses*, shall receive a due share of attention.

Medical Jurisprudence, so far as it is adapted to popular comprehension and usefulness, will be discussed; and all the leading evidence, to guide in a correct opinion of the questions of homicide, by poisoning, or external injury; and of insanity, as removing personal responsibility, and requiring coercion and confinement, will be taught, and illustrations given by interesting cases.

Private Hygiene, will still be set forth in the customary variety, which has proved hitherto so popular. Each organ of the body, its functions and derangement, and hygienic means of cure, will be discussed in succession, and, if necessary, its structure illustrated by drawings—due pains being always taken to prevent unpleasant allusions or expressions which could aught offend the most modest and fastidious.

Various and extensive as is the course just sketched, it is not beyond the resources at the disposal of the conductors of the Journal. The stores of information, from the continent of Europe, especially France and Germany, would, of themselves, furnish an ample supply—stores which, to the country at large, would utterly be lost, without a dispenser, such as the Journal of Health.

Just published, at the Literary Rooms, 121 Chesnut street, The Effects of the Principal Arts, Trades, and Professions, and of Civic States and Habits of Living, on Health and Longevity: with a particular reference to the trades and manufactures of Leeds; and suggestions for the removal of many of the agents, which produce disease, and shorten the duration of life. By C. TURNER THACKRAH, from the London edition, with improvements.

The first number of the *third* volume of the Journal of Health will be issued from the Publication Office, Literary Rooms, 121 Chesnut street, on the second Wednesday of September and continue at the same intervals as before. Terms the same, $1 25 in advance.

The publisher and proprietor of the Journal of Health regrets the necessity of reminding some of his subscribers that they are in arrears, for both the first and second volumes of the Journal. These persons will please to send in their dues without delay.

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